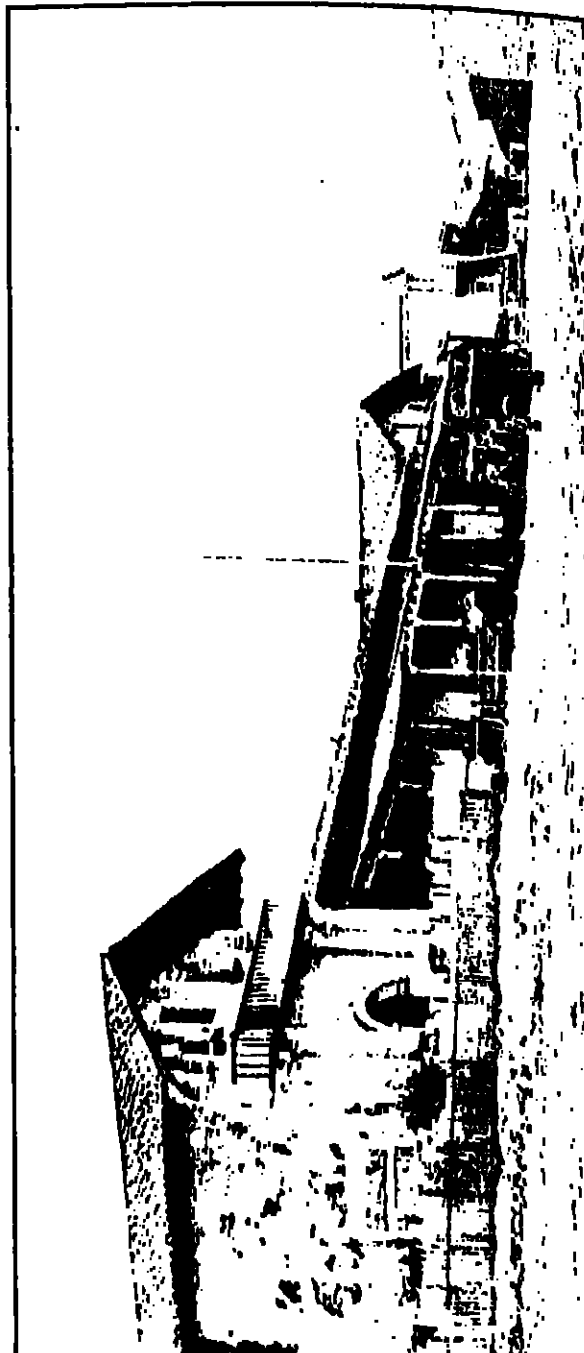


1981 AGU  
Fall  
MeetingSan Francisco  
December 7-11

## Editorial

## The AGU Budget

The process of developing a budget for AGU is long and complicated. It begins fairly early in a calendar year, when results of the prior year's accounts are fairly well known. Thus the 1982 budget process began early in 1981. Budgets are presented to the Council in preliminary form at the Spring Meeting and in final form, for approval, at the Fall Meeting.

The finances of the Union are generally in very good shape, but the total liquid assets are very small for a scientific society of our size. Therefore the Council decided some time ago that the assets should be built up in two ways. The first was a fund-raising campaign, about which all members have been contacted. The goal for this fund-raising campaign is \$1,000,000 during the next 5 years. The second was to raise out of operations a similar amount during the next 5 years. This means that the bottom line for the operating part of the budget should add up to \$1 million during the next 5 years (1981-1985). This will be unevenly distributed such that this year we hope to achieve a net surplus of \$100K, rising evenly to a surplus of \$300K in 1985. It is the business of the Budget and Finance Committee, with advice from other committees (such as the Publications Committee) and with primary inputs from the AGU staff, to arrive at a budget that achieves these modest balances, which are about 4% of the total operating budget, during each of the next 5 years.

The Budget and Finance Committee finds it useful to divide the activities of the Union into those projects that generate income and those that do not. Examples of the former are things like meetings, books, and journals, whereas the latter include the money spent in support of the Congressional Science Fellow program, scholarships, membership directories, and the public information program.

As a rational basis for development of the budget, the Budget and Finance Committee and the general secretary have suggested that each of the income-generating programs should aim for the contribution of an equal percentage to the operating surplus of AGU. This statement needs some clarification, which we shall do by using an example. In the budget for 1981, which is shown in the accompanying summary for JGR, this sum of money includes all anticipated charges that can be directly identified with JGR, such as editors, honoraria, office costs, copy editors' salaries, typesetting, printing, and mailing. In addition, the general and administrative costs at the AGU headquarters—which in-

American Geophysical Union 1981 Budget for Operations Income and Expense by Activity ( $\times \$1000$ )

	Income	Expense
<b>Publications Division</b>		
Journal of Geophysical Research	2101	1379
Earth	356	330
Water Resources Research	419	253
Reviews of Geophysics & Space Physics	221	144
Geophysical Research Letters	236	192
Radio Science	189	142
Russian Translations	678	540
Books	469	448
Chinese Geophysics Series	35	33
Subsidiary Publications	70	66
Other Publications Services	14	10
Publications Division Overhead	—	382
<b>Total Publications Division</b>	<b>4788</b>	<b>3929</b>
<b>Member Programs Division</b>		
Member/Customer Services	113	29
Spring Meeting	124	74
Fall Meeting	119	67
Other Meetings	29	26
Public Affairs	—	39
Education & Human Resources	2	14
Awards	—	3
Associated Societies	86	65
Other Member Programs Activities	58	63
Member Programs Division Overhead	—	80
<b>Total Member Programs Division</b>	<b>511</b>	<b>440</b>
<b>Miscellaneous Projects</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>General and Administrative</b>		
Administrative Division	—	482
Finance Division	50	170
Executive Office	—	213
<b>Total General and Administrative</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>865</b>
<b>TOTAL OPERATIONS</b>	<b>5395</b>	<b>5243</b>

clude such overhead items as building occupancy, the personnel department, and accounting—must be apportioned out to all of the activities within AGU if a true total cost picture is to be obtained. These general and administrative costs make up the administration and finance divisions and the executive director's office. They are apportioned out in proportion to the salaries related to each project. JGR's share for 1981 is \$161K.

Finally, there are other costs within the AGU Publications Division that cannot easily be assigned directly to any individual project. This divisional overhead, loaded with its own share of the general and administrative costs, is apportioned out to each project within the publications division in proportion to the direct costs of each project. Since JGR has 38.9% of the direct costs within the publications div-

Kimberlites:  
Strange Bodies?

Jill Dill Pasteris

Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences and  
McDonnell Center for Space Sciences

## Introduction

Several years ago I asked a well-known mantle petrologist why kimberlites had been studied relatively little in comparison with kimberlite-transported xenoliths from the upper mantle and lower crust. He replied, "When I see a bus full of people travel by, I'm more interested in the passengers than in the bus." For many years kimberlites were relegated to the status of the vehicle for a petrologically intriguing load of xenoliths.

There are several reasons for the initial lack of attention to kimberlites. (1) They are highly brecciated and inclusion-rich. Many petrologists viewed them as a confusing potpourri of exogenous and endogenous fragments. In fact, some were uncertain whether kimberlites had any primary magmatic/liquid component. (2) Kimberlites usually have undergone a high degree of alteration, principally serpentinization and carbonation, but in some cases localized phlogopitization. Initially, most of the alteration was viewed as very late-stage, probably post-magmatic, and some of it perhaps due to weathering. (3) Because of their brecciated, altered condition, kimberlites often are porous, friable, and difficult to make into thin sections.

All of the above features and perceptions made kimberlites seem unamenable to modern petrologic analysis and difficult to interpret. The former statement I hope to show is untrue; the latter is true, but should serve to encourage further petrologic investigation.

In addition to their association with mantle xenoliths, kimberlites have another strong redeeming feature: They are the rocks in which diamonds are found. The question remains whether kimberlites are the source of the diamonds or again merely the vehicle of their transport [e.g., Boyd and Finnerty, 1980]. Researchers at the De Beers Geology Department and at the Anglo American Laboratories in South Africa have spent years studying and classifying a large number of kimberlite types. On several occasions, kimberlite researchers and other mantle petrologists have come together at international conferences, some of which have given rise to special volumes in the literature: First International Kimberlite Conference, 1973, in South Africa (see *Phys. Chem. Earth*, 8, 1975); Second International Kimberlite Conference, 1977, in Santa Fe, New Mexico (see *Boyd and Meyer, 1979a, b*; Cambridge Kimberlite Symposium I (1975) and II (1979) in England. The Third International Kimberlite Conference is scheduled for September, 1982, in France. In addition, there was an entire talk session at the May 1981 AGU Spring Meeting devoted to "Kimberlites and Other Strange Bodies." Several other review volumes and compendia on kimberlites and their xenoliths are listed in the bibliography.

## What Are Kimberlites?

It has been difficult over the years to get petrologists even to agree on a definition of kimberlites, let alone to agree on their origin [e.g., Dawson, 1967a]. Clement et al. [1977] have provided a very useful definition, avoiding both genetic connotations and excessive petrologic restrictions:

Kimberlite is a volatile-rich, potassic, ultrabasic, igneous rock which has a distinctly inequigranular texture resulting from the presence of macrocrysts set in an essentially microporphyrphyritic matrix. The matrix contains as prominent primary phenocrysts and/or groundmass constituents, olivine and several of the following minerals: phlogopite, calcite, serpentine, diopside, monticellite, apatite, spinels, perovskite, and ilmenite. Other primary minerals may be present in accessory amounts. The macrocrysts belong almost exclusively to a suite of anhydrous, cryptogenic ferromagnesian minerals which include olivine, phlogopite, picrolite, magnesian garnet, chromian diopside and enstatite. Olivine is extremely abundant relative to the other minerals which need not all be present. In addition to macrocrysts smaller grains belonging to the same suite also occur.

Clement et al. [1977] have used the nongenic term "macrocryst" for grains visible to the naked eye. The term "cryptogenic" is used when the origin is uncertain; that is, the macrocrysts could be either phenocrysts (precipitated from kimberlite melt) or xenocrysts (foreign grains).

In summary, kimberlite is characterized by its inequigranular texture (often porphyritic) and its mineral components, dominated by olivine (Figure 1). In many cases there are both first generation (large) and second generation (groundmass) grains of olivine and phlogopite. The effects of carbonation and serpentinization are characteristic. In addition, one frequently observes late-stage "pools" of calcite or serpentine in the groundmass. Macrocryst pyroxene garnet and picrolite grains (most from mantle xenoliths) are often abundant (indeed, their presence is used as a prospecting tool in locating kimberlites). On a finer scale, the textures and chemistry of groundmass spinels and ilmenites also characterize kimberlite (Figure 2). In many cases, reaction relationships between early crystals and the kimberlite melt are prominent.

Elemental abundances in kimberlites are distinctive and have been investigated closely as a means of determining

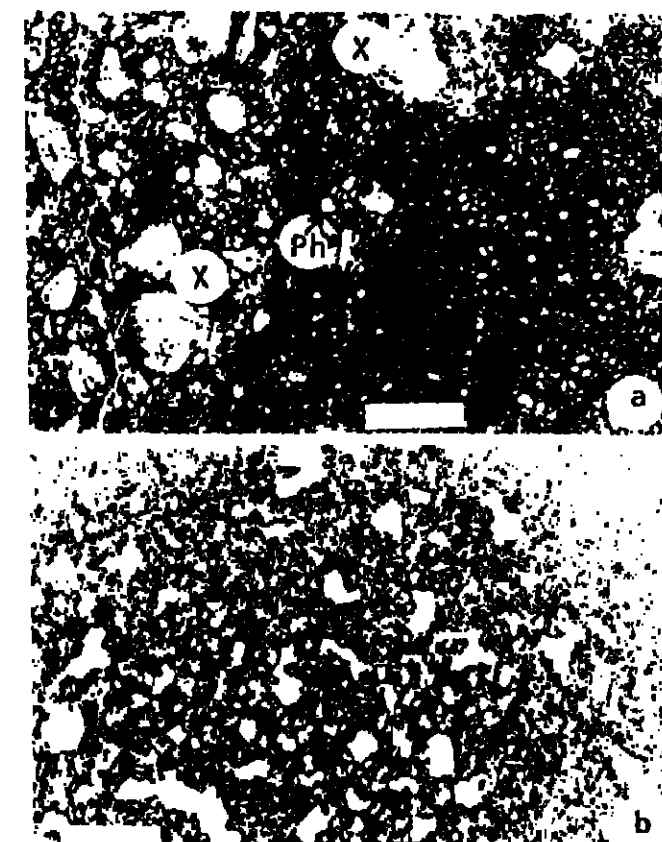


Fig. 1. Photographs taken with plane-polarized, transmitted light; scale bar = 5 mm; De Beers kimberlite, root zone, Kimberley, South Africa. (a) Typical, slightly serpentinized kimberlite; contact between coarse- and fine-grained material. Smaller, kimberlitic olivines (colorless grains) are euhedral. Many xenocrystic olivines (X), some of which are mosaic. Phlogopite (PH) also common. Very fine-grained, dense crystalline groundmass appears black. (b) Kimberlite dike: kimberlite groundmass with irregular pools or segregations (white to gray) of calcite and what appears to have been a glass (now partly serpentinized).

the origin of the initial melts [e.g., Dawson, 1967b, 1980]. Kimberlites are undersaturated rocks with a silica content usually near or below 33 wt %. Their alumina and titania contents are high for ultramafic rocks, whereas total iron is about average ( $\sim 9$  wt % calculated as total FeO). Compared to other ultramafic suites, kimberlites have a high alkali content (often greater than 1.5 wt %  $\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{K}_2\text{O}$ ), the other hallmark being a K/Na ratio exceeding 3. Kimberlites are also volatile-rich;  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  often exceeds 7.5 wt %, and  $\text{CO}_2$  is high ( $\approx 3$  wt %) and variable. The large  $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5$  content (0.5-1.0 wt %) is similar to that of granites.

Kimberlites occur in diatremes/pipes, sills, and dikes (see cover, this issue). It appears that many diatremes narrow and become dikes at depth [Dawson, 1967a]. The term "blow" refers to the sudden expansion of a portion of a kimberlite dike into a pipe. Unlike diatremes, however, blows did not reach the surface during intrusion, but represent dead-end multiple intrusive episodes; that is, even on a macroscopic scale, one can identify more than one kimberlite facies. The mutually intruding rock types are often distinguished in hand specimen by color, friability, degree of alteration, and abundance of crustal and mantle xenoliths.

In general, it appears that kimberlites are primarily confined to stable cratonic regions (e.g., southern and western

(cont. on page 714)

Physical Properties of  
Rocks

6109 Magnetic and electrical properties  
IMPLICATIONS OF INDUCED MAGNETIZATION  
VARIATIONS CAUSED BY THERMAL STRESS  
J. K. Kovach, Institut de Physique du Globe, 4,  
Place Jussieu, 75230 Paris Cedex 05, France,  
J. P. Roy and F. H. Cornet

Laboratory experiments have been conducted to investigate the change in induced magnetization caused by thermal stress variations on anisotropic specimens. Induced magnetization was found to decrease with the increase of axial force (as in the case for uniaxial stress conditions), for a constant confining pressure, while induced magnetization increased with axial load increments. This relationship between stress changes and induced magnetization variation was found to depend on the confining pressure magnitude and the maximum axial stress previously reached; the larger the confining pressure, the larger the effect on induced magnetization; the larger the maximum axial stress, the smaller the effect of stress variation on both axial and radial induced magnetization except for uniaxial stress conditions. For most maximum differential stresses or maximum axial stress conditions, the induced magnetization could be prepared for small magnetic fields, thus led to the definition of a "magnetic tensor" which is called the piezomagnetic tensor. The piezomagnetic tensor is defined as the ratio of induced magnetization to the axial stress increment. The piezomagnetic tensor is a second-rank tensor, and its components are called the piezomagnetic coefficients. The piezomagnetic coefficients are functions of the axial stress increment and the confining pressure. The piezomagnetic coefficients are also functions of the material properties, such as the magnetic susceptibility, the magnetic anisotropy, and the piezomagnetic coefficients. The piezomagnetic coefficients are also functions of the material properties, such as the magnetic susceptibility, the magnetic anisotropy, and the piezomagnetic coefficients.

6110 Laboratory of Earth Sciences  
IMPLICATIONS OF INDUCED MAGNETIZATION  
VARIATIONS CAUSED BY THERMAL STRESS  
J. K. Kovach, Institut de Physique du Globe, 4,  
Place Jussieu, 75230 Paris Cedex 05, France,  
J. P. Roy and F. H. Cornet

The advantages and limitations of the various methods of the piezomagnetic tensor technique were discussed. The piezomagnetic tensor technique is a powerful tool for the study of the piezomagnetic tensor. The piezomagnetic tensor technique is a powerful tool for the study of the piezomagnetic tensor. The piezomagnetic tensor technique is a powerful tool for the study of the piezomagnetic tensor.

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6111 General or miscellaneous  
IMPLICATIONS OF THE MECHANICAL AND FRICTIONAL  
BEHAVIOR OF SUBSIDENCE TO SEISMOLOGICAL  
CARLOS A. BENO AND JOHN M. LIPAN (Center for  
Tectonophysics, Texas A&M University, College  
Station, TX 77803)

The widespread occurrence of serpentinized along strike-slip, seismic faults warrants systematic investigation to determine how its frictional characteristics may affect slip along the fault. Different locations along the Potomac fault zone in Guatemala were sampled to investigate the sliding mode as a function of composition and texture, confining pressure, and displacement rate. Air dried, right circular cylinders, 7.1 cm in length and 3.3 cm in diameter, with a pre-stress of 35% to the cylinder and load axes were deformed at confining pressures up to 200 MPa, room temperature, and displacement rates of  $10^{-4}$  to  $10^{-2}$  cm/sec. Composites of the analysis of specimens from five blocks of serpentinized rock were tested to show that the serpentinized rock can be divided into two groups. One is a non-serpentinized rock containing small amounts of olivine and clinopyroxene (undifferentiated). The other is a (fluorite-textured) serpentinized rock containing up to 84% serpentine, mostly antigorite, 10% olivine, 5% magnetite and calcite, and almost no enstatite or olivine. The fluorite-textured serpentinized rock undergoes the transition from stable sliding to stick-slip sliding at confining pressures as low as 10 MPa. The non-serpentinized rock results only in stable sliding up to a displacement rate of 10<sup>-2</sup> cm/sec. At a displacement rate of 10<sup>-2</sup> cm/sec, the non-serpentinized rock results only in stable sliding up to a displacement rate of 10<sup>-2</sup> cm/sec. At a displacement rate of 10<sup>-2</sup> cm/sec, the non-serpentinized rock results only in stable sliding up to a displacement rate of 10<sup>-2</sup> cm/sec.

6112 Surface of planets  
STABILITY OF COEXISTENCE OF POLYMER AND LIPID  
PHASES TO DEHYDRATION BY UV IRRADIATION  
IMPLICATIONS FOR THEIR OCCURRENCE ON THE MARS  
SURFACE  
Richard V. Morris (Code 601, Dechambers Space  
Laboratory, NASA Johnson Space Center, Houston, TX 77058) and  
H. V. Lewis, Jr.

The stability of a mixture of polymer and lipid phases to dehydration by UV irradiation was investigated. The mixture was irradiated by UV light (254 nm) in a vacuum oven. The mixture was irradiated by UV light (254 nm) in a vacuum oven. The mixture was irradiated by UV light (254 nm) in a vacuum oven.

## Planetology

6113 Atmosphere of planets  
THE ATMOSPHERIC PEAK ON THE VENUS DAYSIDE  
T. S. Cravens (Space Physics Research Laboratory,  
Department of Atmospheric and Space Sciences,  
The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan  
48106), A. J. Kliore, J. F. Keady, and A. F. Nagy

The ionosphere of Venus has been measured by the Pioneer Venus Orbiter between December, 1978 and October, 1980, using the dual-frequency radio occultation technique. The peak electron density as a function of solar zenith angle can be described by a simple Chapman layer theory with proper normalization, however, it does not predict adequately the height variation of the electron density peak. In order to interpret these radio occultation results, we have constructed a theoretical model describing the ion composition and the measurement was obtained only with a specific choice of the neutral density, the electron temperature, and the level of solar activity.

6114 Surface of planets  
STABILITY OF COEXISTENCE OF POLYMER AND LIPID  
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(cont. on page 714)







problems, many of which have much broader petrologic implications.

#### Volatiles in Kimberlites

More recent approaches to kimberlite genesis recognize the need to model mantle control of igneous processes. For instance, in mantle rocks oxygen fugacities approximating the quartz-fayalite-magnetite buffer are more reasonably assumed to be controlled by assemblages like enstatite-magnetite-olivine-graphite/diamond (the EMOG and EMOG buffers of [Eggler et al., 1980]). Furthermore, in addition to CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> now is being investigated for its effects on high-pressure melting of peridotite. Eggler and Baker found that methane not only depresses peridotite liquidus temperatures greatly, but also depolymerizes the melt and thus expands the stability field of olivine (as does water).

The recognition of other species in the postulated C-O-H fluid in the mantle is important with regard to oxygen fugacity, volatile solubility in the melt, depression of melting temperatures, melt structure, and phase relations. The presence of methane in the mantle is supported by its inclusion in diamonds and (by inference) from the formation of graphite during serpentinization of kimberlites [Pasteris, 1981]. Eggler and Baker do not suggest that large quantities of methane exist throughout the mantle. However, they recognize for instance that in the presence of methane, eclogites could be produced at higher pressures than with only CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. They reason that this effect might account both for why diamonds are found in eclogites and why diamonds have methane inclusions. Furthermore, the presence of methane at mantle pressures and temperatures requires oxygen fugacities much below those of QFM (Eggler's estimate for most of the mantle), but it is possible that the mantle fO<sub>2</sub> is now more oxidizing than in the past, according to Eggler and Baker.

#### Future Investigations of Kimberlites

There is still a need for field exploration of kimberlites throughout the world to characterize better their tectonic, petrologic, and age relationships. In addition, several research groups continue to do basic petrologic and mineralogical characterization of kimberlites. Some of these groups and the geographic areas they have been investigating recently are as follows: Stephen Haggerty and coworkers (University of Massachusetts) in western Africa, Roger Mitchell (Lakehead University, Ontario) in northern Canada, Lawrence Taylor and coworkers (University of Tennessee) in Kentucky and Pennsylvania, the De Beers Geology Department (Kimberley) in South Africa, Barry Dawson (Sheffield, England), Peter Nixon (Leeds, England), and Jill Pasteris (Washington University, St. Louis) in South Africa and Missouri.

There is a need for more detailed geochemical analysis of kimberlites, but it must be in conjunction with careful petrologic interpretation. Analysis of confirmed indigenous kimberlite phases should put us well on the way toward making 'petrologic sense' out of these rocks and perhaps toward characterizing which types are diamondiferous and which are barren. Isotopic analysis of individual phases like perovskite and phlogopite provide a means of determining the fluid sources for the minerals (e.g., mantle- or ground-water-derived). Some analyses of the REE-rich phase perovskite were presented by Bactor and Boyd [1979], who showed that REE abundances differ greatly among the kimberlites. Analysis of the abundant groundmass phase perovskite may be another means of genetically classifying kimberlite types and may shed light on the nature of the postulated metasomatizing fluids that aid in kimberlite genesis.

For instance, Basu and Tatsumoto [1979] regarded kimberlites as derivatives of relatively undifferentiated deep mantle, owing to their chondritic Sm-Nd relationships. They suggested that carbonates controlled the Sm-Nd and other REE patterns in kimberlites. However, it seems likely that in many cases perovskite is a major REE carrier. One wonders how the Sm-Nd systematics of perovskite and apparently primary carbonates in kimberlites compare to those of the bulk rock. Have we previously been measuring the signatures of mixed sources in kimberlites?

What about the fluids associated with kimberlites, both those that predate the kimberlite melt (reacting with the rising peridotite diapir) and those that are evolved from the kimberlite as it rises and fractionates? As indicated above, some data are forthcoming from isotopic analysis and thermodynamic modeling of C-O-H fluids. However, there may be useful information, at least on late-stage magmatic processes, locked in fluid inclusions in kimberlitic phases (especially in olivine). Roedder [1985] and Murck et al. [1978] reported abundant CO<sub>2</sub>-filled fluid inclusions in olivine grains in mantle xenoliths. The latter authors inferred the presence of another gas, perhaps SO<sub>2</sub> or H<sub>2</sub>S, in the inclusions. Kimberlite phenocrysts of olivine also contain fluid inclusions, although most of them appear secondary (J. D. Pasteris, unpublished data, 1981). Abundant evidence of late-stage serpentinization with accompanying graphitization and sulfidation in kimberlites [Pasteris, 1981] suggests that we should search for the presence of fluid species like H<sub>2</sub>S and CH<sub>4</sub> in these secondary inclusions. In addition, recent research has revealed the presence of N<sub>2</sub> gas in a wide variety of rock types, including deep-seated xenoliths (J. Touré, personal communication, 1981). Especially because N<sub>2</sub> is an abundant contaminant in diamond, nitrogen should be considered a possible component in fluid inclusions in kimberlites.

What about the broader questions on the mechanism of kimberlite genesis? For instance, does a protokimberlite melt develop in the mantle and give rise to the single-phase xenoliths called megacrysts (phenocrysts), and does this melt eventually fractionate into a kimberlite liquid (see,

e.g., Garrison and Taylor, 1980)? On the other hand, is it possible that the melt giving rise to the megacryst suite is petrologically distinct from that producing kimberlites (see, e.g., Pasteris, 1980b)?

Where do kimberlites fit into the large-scale petrologic model of mantle dynamics? From where in the mantle does their high fluid content come? Anderson at the AGU Spring Meeting recently reviewed constraints on the early geochemical and geophysical evolution of the mantle. He noted that kimberlites are strongly enriched in the highly incompatible elements compared to midocean ridge basalts, but not so enriched in the less incompatible elements. Anderson questioned whether the kimberlites themselves might not be comprised of the fluids extracted from the mantle parent, leaving a depleted residue.

#### Why Study Kimberlites?

Kimberlites are an excellent source of mantle xenoliths and our least expensive deep-continental drilling program. Unfortunately, they do not keep the stratigraphic intact; nor do we know the exact location of the drill hole at depth.

Furthermore, kimberlites are themselves mantle-derived melts. Whereas mantle xenoliths provide information on solid-phase equilibria at depth, kimberlites may represent our best clues to fluid evolution in the mantle. Somewhere (in time and space) there is a petrologic-geochemical connection between kimberlites and their xenoliths (including megacrysts).

This review has emphasized mantle processes, but active research also proceeds on the deep crustal (e.g., granulite) xenoliths entrained by kimberlites. Study of the solid- and fluid-phase equilibria of this material has brought forth interesting questions about the nature and timing of the possible degassing of the upper mantle and how this has affected the stabilization and growth of continental crust throughout time [Newton et al., 1980].

Detailed mineralogical studies of kimberlite have made us more aware of the sensitivity of individual phases such as spinel to changes in magmatic conditions. We are constantly reminded of the small scale on which equilibrium is maintained.

Even as theoretical geoscientists, we cannot ignore the fact that it is also from kimberlites that most diamonds are derived. After all, it was the lure of finding another 'Star of South Africa' back in the 1860's that led to the initial exploration for South African kimberlites and the desire for an internal source of diamonds that led to the discovery of the Siberian kimberlite fields by the Russians in the 1950's. It is singularly fortunate for us that the term 'barren' kimberlite means only that the rock has almost no diamonds, but not that it is in any way barren of geologic information.

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Jill Dill Pasteris received an A.B. in geology from Bryn Mawr College in 1974 and then spent a year in Heidelberg, Germany, studying ore microscopy under Paul Ramdohr. She returned to write her dissertation at Yale University (Ph.D., 1980) on opaque oxide phases in kimberlites. Pasteris is an assistant professor and resources geologist at Washington University, St. Louis. Her research interests include kimberlite petrology, sulfide phases and fluid inclusions in mantle xenoliths, the Precambrian iron deposits of Missouri, and Mississippi-Valley-type Pb-Zn-Co deposits.

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## News

### Galileo Mission To Jupiter

Jupiter has been visited four times: by Pioneers 10 and 11 in 1973 and 1974 and Voyagers 1 and 2 in 1979. Data from those missions will be expanded by the Galileo mission in 1985, which will be the first entry probe into Jupiter's atmosphere. Galileo will also include an orbiting observatory that will provide long-term detailed studies of the entire Jupiter system.

Components for the Galileo spacecraft, which consists of the orbiter and the entry probe, are nearing completion. The development model for the heat shield on the probe recently passed tests at the NASA Ames Research Center, Mountain View, Calif. NASA says that approximately 95% of the flight parts have been delivered, and the design for the two parts of the spacecraft and the mission are nearing completion.

The probe heat shield, which is made up of two pieces, will encase the Jupiter probe instruments. The front piece, a conical-shaped shield made from a carbon cloth treated in plastic resin (carbon phenolic), will be 10 cm thick at the nose and up to 125 cm in diameter. The rear piece will be composed of a slightly different material, nylon phenolic, because this lower-density material will save weight while providing adequate protection for the less severe afterbody heating environment.

When the probe plunges into Jupiter's atmosphere, it will be going 48.2 km s<sup>-1</sup>, equivalent in speed to a trip from New York to Los Angeles in 1½ min. This entry speed will expose the probe to nearly 7 times as much radiation as the sun produces at its surface (42 kW/cm<sup>2</sup>). Upon entry, aerodynamic braking by Jupiter's thick atmosphere will decelerate the probe with a force equal to 300 times the gravity of the earth.

During this extreme braking, the sacrificial front body shield will vaporize down to a centimeter. The vaporization of the carbon phenolic material will provide a heat-absorbing blanket to protect the instruments until, finally, a parachute will open and yank the remaining shields away. The probe then will have about an hour to make measurements of Jupiter's atmosphere.

Carbon phenolic was chosen for the outer layer because it absorbs large amounts of energy in the process of vaporizing. This material was used for heatshields on previous spaceflights, including the Pioneer Venus probes.

During the first 20 s of its entry, radiative and convective heating will bring the heat-absorbing gas layer around the probe to a searing 8,317°C. Radiative energy is produced by the hydrogen molecules of Jupiter's atmosphere breaking apart and recombining. Convective heating is caused by the friction of gases heated and compressed by the probe's supersonic shock layer as it descends through Jupiter's upper cloud layers. [Source: NASA]—PMB

### Synfuels: Oil Shale Gets a Boost

The Reagan Administration has approved federal loan guarantees and support prices for two major oil shale projects in Colorado. There are more than 30 companies involved in developing oil shale deposits in the Colorado-Wyoming area, most of which have applied for support from the United States Synthetic Fuel Corporation (Synfuels Corp.).

Under the Defense Production Act the Union Oil Shale project of the Union Oil Company and the Colony Shale Oil project run jointly by the Tosco and Exxon companies will receive federal loan guarantees and price supports. Both operations are located in the Piceance Creek Basin in western Colorado.

The Union Oil Company's plant will use a surface retorting system with an upflow kiln that uses a rock pump. The system was demonstrated by Union years ago in pilot plant operation. Union's contract includes production of 10,000 barrels (bbl) per day—7000 bbl diesel and 3000 turbine—to come on line by late 1983. Within 5 years after production begins, Union plans to increase production to 50,000 bbl per day. The contract is for 10 years.

Colony Shale Oil will use a Tosco-designed surface retort with a rotary kiln that has also had pilot plant demonstration. The Colony plant is intended to produce 47,000 bbl per day by late 1980's. Exxon will finance two thirds of the \$3 billion expected cost of construction. Federal loan guarantees will be made for Tosco's portion.

Extracting oil from oil shale is not difficult, current wisdom aside. By heating oil shale to approximately 600°C, oil has been recovered for use from oil shale in France and Scotland since the 1830's. In the late 1850's there were 55 oil shale plants in the United States. The problem of large-scale production is cost from the processing of large volumes of shale, both in underground and surface retorting systems. About 15% or so (up to 60%) of the volume is usable petroleum, but in the heating process the shale expands, and its volume increases by 15–20%. The spent shale presents a disposal problem because of its volume and because of its possible contamination of ground water by leaching. Large amounts of water are needed in oil shale processing, but the supply of water has turned out not to be of serious concern, according to the Department of Energy. In a recent lecture before the Potomac Geophysical Society (an affiliate of AGU), Stephen Zukor, then at DOE and now with the U.S. Synthetic Fuels Corp., stated "... water availability has generally been cited as a barrier to oil shale development ... [but] ... the water availability assessment by the Colorado Department of Natural Resources and other studies show that there is adequate water available. ... Zukor pointed out that '... water policy

### Hydrology Manpower

The number of people qualified in groundwater studies 'must more than double over the next 10 years' if the United States is serious about dealing with groundwater contamination, according to David W. Miller, senior vice president at Geraghty & Miller, Inc., consulting groundwater geologists and hydrologists based in Syosset, N.Y.

Between 3500 and 5000 people are involved in developing and protecting groundwater resources, he told a groundwater-protection seminar earlier this month. 'That number must grow to between 10,000 and 15,000 people if federal, state and local governments, industry, and the public are serious about minimizing the types of activities that took place in the past and taking constructive steps toward protecting groundwater resources for the future,' Miller said.

Soil scientists, geophysicists, geological engineers, geochemists, and scientists in other related fields of geology and engineering will be vital in protecting and developing groundwater resources, he added. ☞

### Minority Participation in Earth Sciences

The U.S. Geological Survey recently appointed Ann Nefcy as coordinator of the Minority Participation in the Earth Sciences (MPES) Program for the Central Region, which encompasses Arkansas, Colorado, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, the Dakotas, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah and Wyoming. In the past, the USGS has assisted in the establishment of earth science programs and the strengthening of existing programs at colleges and universities with substantial minority enrollments. In addition, MPES assists young students who aspire to careers in earth sciences.

AGU members in the Central Region who are interested in learning about MPES are urged to contact Nefcy at the USGS, Box 25046, MS 101, Denver Federal Center, Denver, CO 80225 (telephone: 303-234-4472). ☞

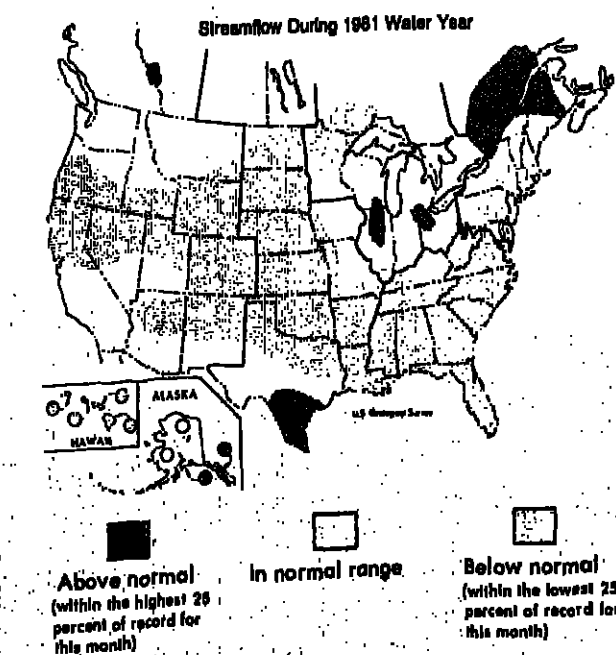
### Geophysical Events

This is a summary of *SEAN Bulletin*, 6(9), September 30, 1981, a publication of the Smithsonian Institution. The complete bulletin is available in the microfiche edition of *Eos*, as a microfiche supplement, or as a paper reprint. For the microfiche, order document number E81-009 at \$1.00 from AGU, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. For reprints, order *SEAN Bulletin* (give dates and volume number) through AGU Separates: \$3.50 for the first copy for those who do not have a deposit account; \$2 for those who do; additional copies are \$1.00. Order must be prepaid.

### Volcanic Events

MI. St. Helens (Washington): Minor ash emission; slow deformation.  
Pavlof (Alaska): Ash clouds; lava flow; seismicity (entire report reproduced).  
Shishaldin (Aleutians): Plumes accompany eruption at nearby Pavlof (excerpt of report reproduced).  
Kavachi (Solomon Islands): Bubbling and discolored water.  
Paliweh (Indonesia): Lava dome destroyed; pyroclastic flows (special report in past issue of *Eos*).  
Collina (Mexico): New lava dome in summit crater; activity since 1976 summarized.  
Guagua Pichincha (Ecuador): Small phreatic explosion; felt earthquakes (special report in past issue of *Eos*).  
Pagan (Mariana Islands): New vent in the summit crater; other Marianas volcanoes quiet.  
Langila (New Britain): Ashfalls; incandescent tephra; discontinuous tremor.  
Manam (Bismarck Sea): Incandescent tephra ejected; ash emission and seismicity decline.  
White Island (New Zealand): Little eruptive activity for 6 months; B-type events increase.  
Sakurajima (Japan): Frequent explosions, mudlike ejection.  
Etna (Sicily): Collapse in the central crater; ash ejection (entire report reproduced).

Pavlof Volcano, Alaska Peninsula, Alaska, USA (55.42°N, 161.90°W); Shishaldin Volcano, Unimak Island, Aleutian Islands, Alaska, USA (54.75°N, 163.97°W). All times are local (GMT - 9 h). NOAA weather satellite images revealed an eruption plume emerging from Pavlof at 1030 on September 25. On the image returned at 1415, when weather clouds next permitted a clear view of the area, both Pavlof and Shishaldin (about 150 km to the southwest) were emitting plumes. At 1545, data from infrared imagery indicated that the temperature at the top of Pavlof's cloud was -55°C, corresponding to an altitude of about 9 km, and Shishaldin's cloud had reached 6–7.5-km altitude. The clouds drifted nearly due east and were still visible at 1945 when imagery showed a new plume originating from Pavlof (but not from Shishaldin). By 2215 the new plume had reached 9–10.5-km altitude and feeding from Pavlof appeared to be continuing. By 0415 the next morning the bulk of this plume had drifted to the southeast and appeared to be largely disconnected from its source, although faint traces of plume may have extended back to Pavlof. Fishermen in Pavlof Bay reported that activity continued through the night, dropping nearly 4 cm of ash on one boat. An ash sample from one of the boats was sent to the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) in Anchorage. No certain activity could be distinguished on the satellite image returned at 0615, but there were unconfirmed reports of a renewed eruption at Pavlof by about 0700, and by 0930 the imagery again showed plumes from both Pavlof and Shishaldin. From infrared imagery, a temperature of -28°C was determined for the top of Pavlof's plume, indicating that its altitude was approximately 7.5 km. A Reeve Aleutian Airways pilot flying near Pavlof at 1000 observed a black eruption column and estimated the altitude of its top at roughly 6–7 km. He also reported incandescent material





on the west flank. On the next satellite image with clear visibility, returned at 1415, a faint plume that extended to the east southeast was still connected to Pavlov, but no activity could be seen at Shishaldin. No eruption clouds have been observed on the imagery since then, and there have been no reports from pilots of renewed activity.

A visit to the Pavlov October 2-3 by Egil Hauksson and Lazo Skirva revealed that lava had been extruded from a vent about 100 m below the summit (elevation 2518 m) and had flowed down the north northwest flank to about the 800-m level. The lava covered an area of roughly 3 km<sup>2</sup> and was 6-7 m thick at the thickest portion of the flow front, which was not advancing. A sample of the lava was sent to the Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory. No ashfall thicknesses could be determined because of redistribution by very strong winds.

A Lamont-Doherty seismic monitoring station 7.5 km SE of Pavlov's summit recorded occasional periods of harmonic tremor and an increase in the size of B-type events beginning about 2 weeks before the eruption. However, a few days before the eruption began, both the number and size of events decreased; only five discrete shocks were recorded between 1500 on September 22 and 1500 on the 23rd, and only two during the next 24 hours, as compared to an average background level of 15-25 per day. On September 25, the day Pavlov's eruption was first observed on satellite imagery, the seismographs recorded a few more discrete events and intermittent, very low amplitude harmonic tremor. Between 2000 on September 25 and 0300 on September 26, tremor amplitude increased gradually, and by about 0330, tremor was saturating the instruments. The strongest tremor was recorded between 0500 and 0600, then amplitudes began to decrease. However, tremor remained strong and continuous until 1220 on September 27, when it declined to several-minute bursts, between which discrete events could be observed. About 100 discrete events and lower-amplitude bursts of tremor were recorded during the 24-hour period ending at 1500 on September 28. As of October 5, B-type events and bursts of harmonic tremor were continuing.

Pavlov last erupted in November 1980, ejecting ash clouds that reached 11-km altitude, large lava fountains, and a long narrow lava flow that moved down the north flank (see *SEAN Bulletin*, 5, 11). Both the 1980 and 1981 eruptions occurred from vents high on the north flank, but it was not certain at press time whether these were the same vents. Shishaldin's last reported activity was in February 1979, when pilots saw unusually strong ash emission on the 14th, 15th, and 17th.

Information contacts: Thomas Miller and James Riehle, USGS, 1209 Orca St., Anchorage, Alaska 99501; Stephen McNitt and Egil Hauksson, Department of Geological Sciences, Columbia University and Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory, Palisades, New York, 10964; Waldo Younker, NOAA/NESS, SFSS, Box 45, Room 518-F, 701 C St., Anchorage, Alaska 99513.

**Etna Volcano, Sicily, Italy (37.73°N, 15.00°E).** Collapse activity deep within Bocca Nuova, one of Etna's two central craters, has been frequent since the March 17-23 fissure eruption (see *SEAN Bulletin*, 6, 3). No fissuring or other evidence of surface collapse has been observed around Bocca Nuova. Explosions associated with the collapse activity ejected fine ash, caused strong ground vibrations 300 m from the crater, and could be heard as much as 10 km away. Plumes produced by this activity could sometimes be seen on the satellite images returned once daily by the NOAA 7 polar orbiter. Images returned shortly after noon on October 3 and 4 showed narrow, well-defined plumes extending about 75 km downwind from Etna. A smaller, less dense plume, extending outward only about 20 km, was present on the October 6 image.

Information contacts: John Guest, University of London Observatory, Mill Hill Park, London NW7 2QS England; Michael Matson, NOAA/National Earth Satellite Service, Land Sciences Branch, Camp Springs, Maryland 20723.

#### Earthquakes

Date	Time	Mag.	Latitude	Longitude	Depth of Focus	Region
Sep 1	0930	7.7 M	14.99°S	173.17°W	shallow	Samoa
Sep 3	0536	6.6 M	43.59°N	147.08°E	46 km	Kurile Islands
Sep 12	0716	6.1 M	35.67°N	73.55°E	shallow	NE Pakistan
Sep 17	0823	6.6 M	22.53°S	170.60°E	shallow	SW Pacific

A local tsunami that measured 24 cm peak to peak followed the Samoan Islands earthquake by about an hour. The shock was centered at the north end of the Tonga Trench, about 200 km west of Pago Pago. Felt across northern Hokkaido, Japan, the September 3 event caused minor damage on Shikotan Island, about 26 km northwest of the epicenter, at the southern end of the Kurile Islands. The September 12 earthquake killed 212 persons, injured about 200, and left 17 missing. Several villages were destroyed and the city of Gilgit was extensively damaged. The September 17 event occurred in open ocean about 800 km southeast of the Loyalty Island region.

Information contacts: National Earthquake Information Service, U.S. Geological Survey, Stop 987, Denver Federal Center, Box 25046, Denver, Colorado 80225; Geological Survey of Pakistan, Quetta, Pakistan; Karachi Domestic Service broadcast, Karachi, Pakistan; United Press International, Moscow Domestic Service broadcast, Moscow, USSR.

#### Meteoritic Events

Fireballs: Brazil, Czechoslovakia (2), British Isles (3), New Mexico, Pennsylvania

## New Publications

### Space Science Comes of Age: Perspectives in the History of the Space Sciences

Paul A. Hanle and Von Del Chamberlain (Eds.), Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C., xii + 194 pp., 1981, \$12.50 (paper) \$22.50 (cloth).

Reviewed by David P. Stern

On March 23-24, 1981, the National Air and Space Museum of the Smithsonian Institution in Washington hosted a symposium on the history of the space sciences, and this book is one of the results. It contains nine articles covering various aspects of the main theme, prepared by the invited speakers, plus two reprints of material, which has already appeared in similar form elsewhere. Illustrations abound, with some articles devoting about equal space to pictures and to the text, and the volume is dedicated to the memory of Tim Mutch, NASA's Associate Administrator for Space Science, who died tragically the previous year on a mountain climb in the Himalayas.

It is a rather nonuniform book, and for a good reason: There exists no consensus about what exactly constitutes history of space science, neither among the contributors to this volume nor in the community of scientists and historians. Does a chronological review of missions, spacecraft, observations, and/or administrative decisions qualify? Some of the articles here give just that, and while such chronologies certainly do contain some necessary ingredients of history, the passive voice, so effective in dehumanizing the professional scientific literature ('it was found that...'), often takes over and makes the reader wonder what the real story was like.

At the other end of the spectrum, the collection contains personal accounts by Jastrow and Shoemaker, written in first person and quite explicit. Perhaps they come a bit closer to the mark, and though Jastrow's account of meeting Harold Urey and helping launch Apollo may arouse controversy, perhaps now other participants of that drama will also tell their sides of the story and leave it to the rest of the community to match the various accounts. Shoemaker's account is a brief one, and I for one hope that the author will return to it one day and expand it. There must be much more to the story of the geologists who dreamed of walking on the moon—those who did not fulfill their dream, like Shoemaker himself, and the one who did, Harrison Schmitt, who is now a U.S. senator.

However, what may be the best part in this collection belongs to neither of these classes, but is a reprint of Van Allen's first news conference of May 1, 1958, describing the discovery of the radiation belt. It is not a personal story, the style is scientific and detached, yet it manages to capture well the atmosphere of those early days, of the initial groping and puzzlement. The question-and-answer record makes it clear that the initial explanations were at best incomplete, that they were dominated by the analogy with the polar aurora, while no hint existed yet of albedo neutron decay or ring current protons or O<sup>+</sup> ions. Still, the deduction was clear and logical: This perhaps comes closest to the stuff of which 'real' history consists.

Two lucid reviews were contributed by professional science historians. Steve Brush surveys theories of the origin of the solar system, 1900-1960, a thorough exposition, which covers its subject well, though an afterword linking it to present-day views might have been appropriate. And Stewart Gillmor reviews the story of ionospheric layers up to about 1950, when the study of the earth's ionosphere entered a new phase with different emphasis (e.g., thermospheric chemistry), new tools, and perhaps a new cast of characters.

Other articles are by Lyman Spitzer, Jr., on UV astronomy; by Leo Goldberg on solar observations from space; by Herbert Friedman on early 'rocket astronomy'; by Richard X rays (striking pictures); by Richard Hallion on launch vehicles; by Pamela Mack on the Landsat project; and a review of space science by Homer Newell, adapted from part of his recent book *Beyond the Atmosphere: Early Years of Space Science*.

Taken together, it is a first step, or perhaps a collection of steps in different directions, trying to define and capture the image of a new scientific discipline that is still evolving. It is very much like a set of test drillings by a prospector, to determine whether the lode is there and whether it is worth extracting. On this point, at least, the answer seems clear: The lode exists, and it is an immensely rich one. It will reward handsomely those who will extract it, but the effort will have to go far beyond this modest beginning.

David P. Stern is with the Laboratory for Extraterrestrial Physics, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland.

### Environmental Geology

D. R. Coates, John Wiley, New York, iv + 701 pp., 1981, \$21.95.

Reviewed by Robert H. Fakundiny

The subject area of 'environmental geology' has needed a precise definition and a cogent argument to give it legitimacy among the other subdivisions of earth sciences. Donald R. Coates has aided the cause of legitimacy by providing this comprehensive and reasonably priced compilation of data, case histories, and philosophy. We still wait for a succinct definition, however.

The book has neither a stated specific audience nor a declared purpose, but seems to be a handbook, almanac,

and history of environmental geology for the professional geologist and lay person that could also be used as an undergraduate-level college text. Although it may not succeed fully in either function, it does provide the reader with an overview of the impact geology has upon our lives. Present philosophical statements and personal emphases in the presentation of arguments pertaining to current environmental issues will probably make it one of the more provocative scientific books available.

The book contains over 700 pages of discussions with nearly 700 black and white illustrations and tables. It is divided into six parts: 'Fundamentals,' 'Geologic Resources and Energy,' 'Geologic Hazards,' the 'Human Modification of Nature,' 'Environmental Management,' and 'Synthesis and Epilogue,' accompanied by a glossary and six appendices giving the classification of rocks, the origin of mineral deposits, and a list of recent hazards and disaster events. Each of the six parts has an introduction and readings presented as several chapters, and each of the chapters (21 in all) has an individual introduction and readings list as well as a conclusion, called 'Perspectives.' Such a massive undertaking would normally take years to write. The subject matter, however, requires timeliness, and a large number of flaws suggest that this work was done quickly.

The long list of positive characteristics attests to Coates' talent for compilation, assimilation, and synthesis. The chapters on 'Historical Perspectives,' 'Energy and Fossil Fuels,' 'Energy: Alternative Sources,' 'Volcanic Activity,' 'Landslides,' 'Floods,' 'Engineering Impacts on Water Supply,' 'Coastal Environments,' 'Human Impacts on Soil,' and 'Weather, Climate, and Civilization' are comprehensive and enlightening. Technical quality is particularly high in some of Coates' own fields of expertise: geomorphology, surficial geology and soils, and case-history reviews. The numerous interspersed tables are pertinent and effective as supplementary data for the case histories. The scope of the book is ambitious, yet Coates is successful in mentioning almost every topic related to environmental geology. One way in which the usefulness of the text could be enhanced would be to add a comprehensive reference section that leads the reader to a primary source for the myriad case histories and interesting facts.

This book would be a worthwhile addition to every geologist's and environmentalist's library because it contains not only hundreds of short discussions of appropriate case histories related to each of the main topics, but also graphs and tables of data that effectively illustrate how geologic information is needed for many of today's decisions. Excellent accounts of geology's role in human history illustrate the delicate relationship between impact of people upon their surroundings and the perils of nature. Nowhere else have I seen in one volume so many tables of data useful for developing perspectives on environmental questions.

Several deficiencies are apparent in both the editing and printing and the text content. As examples, reproduction quality of photographs is poor, and type style and layout are inconsistent in later chapters. Also, many figure captions are incomplete or not explanatory, numerous inconsistencies exist between text tables and appendix tables, the table of contents is too abbreviated, and the glossary and index are incomplete. Several topics could have been discussed more fully, including governmental decision making, remote sensing of the environment, strategic minerals, geophysical techniques used for mineral-resource exploration and regional structural studies, state and Federal powerplant-siting laws, and the effects of trace element chemistry upon health. Some minor problems annoy more than offend; for example, several of the maps contain errors or fail to illustrate the intended idea, the definition of 'geotechnology' is inappropriate, the discussion of plate tectonics is weak, some facts are in error (asbestos is not a trace element, granite is not the most common intrusive rock, several cities larger than Denver are not on a major

water body), and inaccuracies exist in both the presentation of the history of geologic studies pertaining to the hearings on the siting of Indian Point, New York, nuclear powerplants and the closing of the West Valley nuclear-fuels reprocessing plant in western New York.

A significant problem with the text content is the unbalanced emphasis given to contrasting environmental philosophies. One example is the discussion of mining impact, where a reprinted advertisement, including photographs, by a tractor corporation informs us early in the book, in the chapter on 'Mineral Resources,' that 'mining makes a mess of the countryside.' This visual presentation, followed by a section that discusses environmental problems of mining and another on extraction processes, suggests that mining is horrendous. The impression is not countered or contrasted until the end of the book, in a small subchapter on mine reclamation. Coates devises 10 basic concepts, some of which either seem unnecessary for discussion, such as 'environmental problems are universal,' or are open to debate, such as 'environmental decisions invariably involve and produce internal conflicts.' Several other concepts are used in questionable fashion, including Newton's second law of motion and the notion of feedback in systems. An interesting, and perhaps the most controversial, aspect of the book is Coates' boldness in debating environmental issues and presenting his personal views on managing the environment.

Coates, however, is convincing in this immense composition that environmental geology is a legitimate subject area of earth science. To provide the needed definition, perhaps we can draw from Coates' own words, in his tenth basic concept, where he illustrates what environmental geologists should do: 'Environmental geologists... should... articulate their findings and be willing to share their judgments in the public forum.' Coates has followed his own advice. Although the quality of the text is uneven, the book's good points so greatly outweigh the deficiencies that it will be valuable to all readers concerned with the environment and to all geologists interested in the influence their knowledge can have on the decisions made in both private and public sectors.

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### Who Pays for Clean Water? The Distribution of Water Pollution Control Costs

E. E. Lake, W. M. Hannemann, and S. M. Oster, Westview, Boulder, Colo., xiv + 244 pp., 1979, \$20.00

Reviewed by John E. Schetter

This is a report on a study of the costs of compliance with the 1972 amendments to the Water Pollution Control Act (P.L. 92-500) and of the distribution of these costs among different segments of society. Lake, Hannemann, and Oster set out to answer three questions (p. 1): 'Who will pay for water pollution control? How great will be the burden for different socioeconomic groups? Will the distribution of costs be equitable?'

The book is organized into five chapters. It begins with a review of the provisions of P.L. 92-500 and a brief history of water pollution control in the United States.

A discussion of problems of defining and measuring the equity of the distribution of water pollution control costs is provided in chapter 2, along with some information on the distribution of income in the United States. The authors propose to judge the equity of the distribution of the costs of the Act by estimating the extent to which the Act changes the equality of the distribution of income and by comparing the distribution of the costs with the 'distribution of the personal income tax, the total (Federal, state, and local) tax burden, the property tax, and the user charge burden' (p. 18). However, the distribution of the costs is compared only with that of the Federal personal income tax and the total Federal tax burden; the other comparisons are not presented.

In the third chapter the authors provide estimates of the municipal costs of complying with the Act and discuss both the methods that may be used to finance these costs and the resulting incidence of the costs. The distribution of the municipal costs of the Act is estimated based on assumptions as to methods of finance, which are, in part, based on survey results.

In chapter 4 the costs of industrial compliance with the Act are estimated under the assumption that the only pollution control alternatives available to industries consist of self-treatment or treatment in publicly owned facilities; the possibility that some industries might find changes in their production processes to be the most efficient means of compliance is not considered. The authors then provide estimates of the price increases resulting from the estimated industrial water pollution control expenditures. These price increases result in real income losses to consumers in that they can purchase fewer goods and services, given a fixed income. The magnitude of these annual real income, or welfare, losses is estimated for families in each income category on the basis of expenditure patterns within each category and price elasticities of demand.

In chapter 5, the estimates of the distribution of the costs of municipal compliance are combined with the estimates of the distribution of the welfare losses attributable to industrial price increases to obtain the estimated distribution of the total costs of compliance with P.L. 92-500. Estimates are provided by income, age, and racial groups (blacks versus the U.S. population as a whole) for 1977, 1980, and 1985. As it is assumed that full compliance will not be achieved until 1983, the estimates of the annual costs for 1985 are the only ones based on an assumption of full compliance.

In estimating the costs of full compliance, it is assumed that the requirements of the Act will be satisfied through private sector investments in both Best Practicable Technology (BPT) and Best Available Technology (BAT) and public sector investments in the amounts described in the 1974 Needs Survey Categories I, II, and IV-B' (p. 229). Needs Survey Categories I, II, and IV-B include traditional water-quality programs for treatment plants and interceptor sewers. Also provided are estimates of the distribution of costs for a more comprehensive program encompassing categories I-V of the Needs Survey, which would require further upgrading of existing sewers and construction of new sewage and rainwater collection facilities. The authors do not consider the costs of Needs Category VI, which is

concerned with expenditures for the treatment and/or control of stormwater runoff.

Two sets of estimates of municipal expenditures are derived: one set under the assumption that there would have been some level of expenditure on water pollution control in the absence of the Act and another under the assumption there would have been no such expenditures in the absence of the Act (zero baseline scenario). Because the authors assumed zero baseline industrial expenditures, the estimates of the total costs of the Act are based on the zero baseline scenario.

The authors conclude that 'the equity impacts of the Act appear small, and it does not appear that the poor will pay a disproportionate share of the costs' (p. 244). For the average family the estimated welfare losses attributable to industrial price increases are estimated to be an order of magnitude greater than the annual costs of municipal compliance. The distribution of these welfare losses 'hits the middle income groups particularly hard' (p. 228), though the incidence of the total pollution control costs is found to be 'roughly comparable to the distribution of the Federal tax burden' (p. 229).

The estimates of the distributional consequences of the Act must be viewed in light of the authors' simplifying assumptions. In particular, the authors ignored most of the macroeconomic consequences of the Act and chose to estimate the distributional consequences of only the 'direct' costs of complying with the Act. 'Other burdens, such as losses in GNP due to unemployment, reduced economic growth, loss of corporate profit due to inability to pass costs on... are excluded from the analysis' (p. 2). Neither do they consider any stimulative effect that the Act may have on certain sectors of the economy (for example, the producers of water pollution control equipment). Though the authors cannot be criticized for explicitly limiting the scope of their work, one might ask why they chose to estimate consumer welfare (or consumers' surplus) losses resulting from industrial price increases while ignoring profit (producers' surplus) losses due to inability to fully pass on these price increases.

A congenial critic would find much to quibble with, even legitimately question, in this book. But, given the authors' limiting assumptions and a degree of empathy with those faced with addressing such a complex problem, the research approach and results seem reasonable.

My main criticism is directed at the editorial quality of the report. The text is poorly written, redundant, and suffers from a lack of careful editing. Chapter 3, which occupies 150 pages of the 244 page text, is poorly organized; I had to keep referring to the Table of Contents for guideposts because the relevance of some of the material in this chapter is not always immediately evident. Not all of the references are sufficiently documented, and no bibliography is provided. Lake, Hannemann, and Oster have an interesting story to tell; unfortunately, it is poorly told.

Finally, it should be noted that the equity (however measured) of the Act will depend not only upon the distribution of its costs, but also upon the distribution of its benefits. Lake, Hannemann, and Oster provide a valuable look at who pays the 'direct' costs of obtaining clean water. The other half of the story remains to be told.

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